THE ELEMENTARY ENGLISH REVIEW

VOLUME XIII

MAY 1936

No. 5

Jane Andrews

A Pioneer in Internationalism

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ISS JANE ANDREWS had called a group of friends to her - home to listen to the reading of the manuscript of a book which she was about to offer to a publisher. Among them were her schoolmates and lifelong friends, Harriet Prescott Spofford and Louisa Parsons Hopkins. The group listened intently to the reading, for they admired Miss Andrews. "These stories," the author explained, "seemed to grow by themselves in the telling. The children seemed to care for them so much that I thought if they were put into a book other children might care for them too, and they might possibly do some good in the world.

The book was Seven Little Sisters and the author's hope for its success was justified. Published originally by Tichnor and Fields in 1861, it has been a best seller among books for children. Published now by Ginn and Company, the sales in 1915 alone were in excess of sixteen thousand copies. In 1925 nearly half that number were sold, and at present the sales are still substantial. This is a truly remarkable record.

Jane Andrews was a pioneer in American education in the attempt to show the kinship of children the world over. She

wrote her book, according to Mrs. Spofford, in the attempt to offset the effect of Peter Parley's books in which children of other lands were made to appear strange and unlike the boys and girls for whom the books were intended.

In Miss Andrews, an enthusiasm for geography and history and a genuine love for children resulted in the presentation of a universal sisterhood. This was a new note in American education where a vigorous national patriotism had been fostered.

It is interesting to compare the work of Miss Andrews with that of her great, great, great, grandfather, Michael Wigglesworth, the Puritan divine who wrote The Day of Doom in which he pictured a vengeful God seated on His throne of judgment while about him rose the terrible cries of the unbaptized babes whom he was condemning to the tortures of hell, even though he confessed it was not their fault that they were unprepared for death. Miss Andrews owned the letters of this ancestor and also his wedding gift to his third wife, a tiny silver heart in a small box made from English shillings. Only her choicest visitors were permitted to see the treasures. One time Oliver Hereford, Laura Hills and Caro

pathies.

Lloyd were entertained in this manner.

It was in 1833 that Jane Andrews was born in Newburyport, Massachusetts. She attended the Putnam Free School in that town where she was a pupil of the celebrated schoolmaster, William H. Wells. Mr. Wells demanded a thoroughness of learning that affected his students profoundly. It was at this school that Mrs. Spofford first knew Miss Andrews. She described her as a tall, erect, queenly figure with a complexion of peaches and cream and a quantity of golden brown hair. Her reported engagement threw a romantic glow about her for all the other students.

Thomas Wentworth Higginson was making his home in Newburyport during the last years of Jane Andrews' life in the Putnam Free School. He conducted an evening school in his home for a group of intelligent factory girls. Jane Andrews, her sister Caroline, and others assisted him in reading and study one evening a week. The genial teacher broadened Miss Andrews' interests and extended her sym-

Following her graduation from the Newburyport school, Miss Andrews went to West Newton to attend the Normal School which had only recently been moved there from Lexington. She soon proved herself one of the most capable students in that institution. Horace Mann was a devoted friend of the school and was deeply interested in its students. Mrs. Mann's parents, Dr. and Mrs. Nathaniel Peabody, were living in West Newton at the time. Miss Andrews was often in their home where she met not only the Manns but also the other daughters, Elizabeth Peabody and Mrs. Nathaniel Hawthorne.

While Jane Andrews was a student at West Newton, Jenny Lind was to appear in concert in Boston. The students were eager to hear her but they had no money. Finally they hit upon a scheme, and a group of them, including Jane Andrews,

cut off their long hair and walked the six miles to Boston to sell it. They had entrusted the package of hair to one member of the group who lost it on the way. No amount of searching revealed the lost

glory.

When Horace Mann went to Yellow Springs, Ohio, to become president of Antioch College, he urged Miss Andrews to follow him there to continue her education and to assist in teaching. She learned that she would need to have Latin in order to enter the college so she set to work to get ready for the examination. She worked so dilligently and with such good purpose that in six weeks she passed what was probably the equivalent of a Harvard entrance examination in Latin.

The frontier college was not ready to open when Horace Mann arrived. The buildings were not completed and stumps of newly felled trees dotted the campus. It was to this scene that Miss Andrews was introduced upon her arrival one very dark midnight in the fall of 1853.

Before the first year at Antioch was over Miss Andrews became very ill and was forced to give up her college work. She returned to her Newburyport home where for the next few years she was reduced to severe invalidism. When she had sufficiently recovered she opened a school for small children in her home. This venture was very successful and later she moved her school to the large airy loft of the barn behind the house where she and her sisters had played as children. That schoolroom was a happy place. Chairs and desks of varying sizes were placed about the room so that each child might be comfortable. The roar of the ocean could be heard and the terraced lawn below sloped down to a hedge of purple lilacs where the children played in the shade or built snow forts in winter. Pictures, books, specimens of sea life, leaves and flowers made the room a pleasant place. An open fire added its cheer-

The Country of "The Good Master"*

KATE SEREDY†

LMOST thirty years ago a few famous French artists and scientists came to Hungary to study peasant art and life. My father, who was doing research work along the same lines, was asked to join the party. It was summertime and it was decided that a few weeks in the country would be good for me, so I was taken along. I was about nine years old then, a typical pale, skinny city child and, being an only child, very much spoiled. I didn't want to go "with a lot of old men to look at old embroideries and stuff," but for once I couldn't have my own way. Of course, no one expected me to get interested in peasant art—and I didn't. I paid as little attention to the object of that trip as I possibly could. I went home from the trip very much healthier, with a creditable amount of escapades to my credit, but unharmed by ethnological or artistic knowledge. Or so I thought. Now I know that I went home full of impressions, deep, unforgettable impressions, only I didn't know it then, not for a long time. My mind was like a sensitive moving picture film, recording an incredible number of pictures. Films are worthless unless developed; my impressions were meaningless to me too, until passing years and new, conscious observations developed them.

We arrived in a small, remote village after sundown. I was too tired to notice how sleeping quarters were arranged for; I only remember that a rosy cheeked,

buxom, friendly peasant woman took charge of me. "You poor little scrawny chicken," she exclaimed over me, "what you need is a lot of milk, fresh from the cow, to put meat on your bones." She produced immense quantities of food for the party. I stubbornly refused to drink milk 'fresh from the cow' and ate something thoroughly bad for me, hot, peppery sausages and big slabs of fresh bread. After a while I was put to bed. I'll never forget the helpless feeling in that tremendous, soft bed. Featherbeds under me, featherbeds over me—I was lost, sinking into an ocean of soft warmth. Next morning a deep, mellow musical sound woke me up. I listened in the semi-darkness; the sound was coming nearer. I struggled out of bed to investigate. A man (later I found out that he was the village herder) was walking slowly down the long street. He stopped by each house and blew his horn. From the yards came cows, one by one, and joined the growing herd. The village herder takes them to the pasture and brings them back at night. His horn marks the beginning and the end of each day. The ducks and geese are taken to the pasture later; one or two children are in charge of those. The men leave for the fields, and in the spring and summer the women stay home just long enough to cook a big meal. They carry it to their men at noontime and stay until dark, to help. In the afternoon the whole village is deserted. No one ever locks a door, the houses are open. "God gave us what we have," say the peasants, if He sends a poor traveler this way, it is the Lord's will that he be fed and clothed."

^{*} Prepared under the auspices of the Book Evaluation Committee of the Children's Librarians' section of the American Library Association, Miss Gladys English, chairman.

man. † Author and illustrator of The Good Master, Viking, 1935.

They are not fatalistic, but they have absolute confidence in divine providence. Wheat is truly the Lord's food; in the odd design on each grain of wheat they see the picture of Mary and the Christ Child. The man of the house cuts each fresh loaf of bread, first saying a blessing and marking the bread with the sign of the cross. They are hospitable, welcoming friends and strangers with a hearty "God brought you," and their last word to the parting guest is a sincere "God bless you."

They are very close to nature and have the innate gentleness of people who are in constant contact with growing thingsplants and beasts. Their home craftembroideries, carvings, pottery—is a mirror of their simple daily life. The designs are always pictures or symbols of animals and plants. Everything they produce is richly decorated. As inevitably as nature covers a barren patch of ground with vegetation, the Hungarian peasant will cover a plain surface with colorful, intricate designs. Clothes, household linen are embroidered. Cooking utensils and dishes are painted and glazed. Furniture, door and window frames, gates and fence posts, washboards and yokes, whips, plowhandles are carved, inlaid, painted. They are all born artists, but the greatest among them are the shepherds. Perhaps because they live far away even from the remote villages and modern civilization has not touched and confused their conceptions, their carvings show the perfect knowledge of essential form and understanding of structure that the Assyrian and Egyptian sculptors had. I remember one incident. Father and the visitors were examining the carvings of a young shepherd. Among these carvings was a small figure of a ram, perhaps three inches high. The French sculptor looked at it for a long, long time. He was frowning fiercely and fired staccato questions at Father. "Who is this man?" "Where did he study?" . . . When he finally understood

that the shepherd couldn't even read or write, that he was born on the plains and never left them for a day, that no one ever taught him anything, he was speechless. But, being a Frenchman, he wasn't speechless for very long. He burst into a tirade of mixed admiration and despair. "Here I am. People call me a great sculptor. I studied all my life, I work like a slave to perfect my art . . . if I keep on working for a hundred years, I will not be able to produce anything as elemental as this. Look, all unimportant details are disregarded, this is the symbol of the ram and even if it is only as big as my hand, it is as colossal as the giant granite sculptures of the Assyrians."

I didn't understand him then; I only saw a very excited elderly gentleman gesticulating wildly and I was very much amused. But Father told this story over and over again and, much later, when I was studying art, slaving and working over anatomy, getting lost in details and losing track of pure line and form, I knew what he meant—what he saw in

that little carving.

Years went by, war came, I had many interests, but as often as I could, I went back to the plains, with open eyes now. I had a mental picture of the life of the Hungarian peasant, a picture painted in bold, vivid colors, the red of wild poppies, blue of cornflowers, yellow of ripe wheat. A picture of generous, honest, hardworking people, whose feet are firmly planted in the soil and whose hearts and minds are open to all good things in life. Much later, in fact only a little over a year ago, somebody said to me: "You have a book up your sleeve. Why don't you write it?"

So The Good Master was written—but I didn't really write it. All I did was to give a frame to the picture that many unknown Hungarian peasants painted for me,

many years ago.

"The Twins"-Their Origin

LUCY FITCH PERKINS*

IN A RECENT book by Rachel Field, the heroine begins her narrative by saying that the whole course of her life had been changed by the fact that on a certain day her father forgot to wear his jacket! Nearly everyone can point to similar trifling instances which have shaped the course of destiny.

It is of interest to me, as to others, sometimes to glance back over the long path and take note of some of the apparently unimportant circumstances which change the course of events. In my own girlhood, my whole thought and energy were devoted to the study of drawing and painting, and after graduating from the Art School of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, I devoted some years to illustration, to decorative painting, and to the making of prints in colour for use in school rooms.

One day, in the course of this or some other quest, I went into a school in one of the crowded districts in Chicago, and was deeply impressed by a realization of the great task which rests primarily on the school teachers of America in bringing a unified nation out of a heterogeneous mixture of races. In that school, there were twenty-seven different nationalities represented, with the usual racial prejudices and conflicts evidenced by the interchange of such names as "Dago!" "Sheenie!" and "Nigger!"

It occurred to me with an emphasis which has never left me, that anything which would promote mutual respect for the best which other nations bring to this shore would help to some degree in this process of Americanization, and toward world peace.

It seemed equally important to have

these foreigners in some way brought into sympathy with the ideals of our own country. These impressions became the inspiration of the "Twin" books.

A second determining influence was a conversation with a publisher friend, who deflected my attention from my immediate interest in drawing by urging me to undertake the writing, as well as the illustration of books.

Still another important trifle was the gift to me at that time of a wonderful series of photographs of Dutch life. This, added to the insistence of the publisher, resulted in the immediate visioning of two appealing little characters and the title *The Dutch Twins* which appeared to my "inner eye" just as, later, they did on the cover of the book.

The idea expanded into a series of stories with a geographical background, and another with an historical basis, all dedicated to the original proposition of increasing sympathy and understanding for the qualities of different races, and the heritage left to them and to us by our forebears.

Incidentally, I discovered also that drawing is an excellent preparation for writing, for children are for the most part very "eye-minded." To write for them demands primarily complete visualization. It was apparent from the first that this power of visualization and of arousing emotion are the two factors which, more than any others, contribute to the making of a book which will interest children. You may deluge them with facts and "lame them with reasons," but unless you can awaken interest and stimulate and direct emotion, the results will not hold the attention of a child, or have any desirable influence in forming his ideals.

To illustrate what I mean by the arous-

^{*} Author of the Twins Series, more than two million copies of which have been distributed. Houghton, Mifflin Company.

A Bridge of International Friendship*

MARGARET SHAW

East Bluff Branch, Peoria Public Library, Peoria, Illinois

Africa

Berry, Erick. Juma of the Hills. Harcourt, Brace, 1932, \$2.00.

The adventures of a little hill girl in her native village and in the city on the plain.8

Best, Herbert. Son of the Whiteman. Doubleday, Doran, 1931. \$2.00.

Much information about the customs and superstitions of different tribes of Africa is disclosed by adventurous Jerry, son of a government officer in Africa.4

Seabrook, Katie. Colette and Baba in Timbuctoo. Coward-McCann, 1933. \$2.00.

Colette, the little French girl, with the aid of Baba, the son of a Touareg chief, explores the ancient city of Timbuctoo.8

Arabia

Carpenter, Frances. Our Little Friends of the Arabian Desert. American Book Co., 1934, \$.72.

A boy and girl of the Arabian desert are followed through a year's adventures.2

British Empire

Ryan, Lorna M. When I Was a Girl in Australia. Lothrop, 1932, \$1.25.

In this story of her girlhood the author discusses home and school life, customs, queer birds, animals, and plants of her native country."

Phillips, Ethel Calvert. Gay Madelon. (Canada) Houghton Mifflin, 1931, \$2.00.

Gay Madelon visits her relatives in Quebec. The children in their play give us true glimpses of French Canadian life.3

Savery, Constance. Pippin's House. (East Anglia) Longmans, Green, 1931, \$1.50.

Pippin, a blind boy, and his little English companion make friends with the Admiral."

Bose, Irene Mott. Totaram. (India) Macmillan, 1933, \$2.00.

* The books in this list were published from 1931 to

Picture book
Young readers
Intermediate
Older

The story of a village boy in India of today written with an appreciation of the colorful background, the superstitions and customs of that coun-

Winlow, Anna C. Our Little Burmese Cousin. (India) L. C. Page, 1931, \$1.00.

The story of the little Burmese girl, Ma Shwe, and of the young boy, Maung Aung, in the same vil-

Wyckoff, Charlotte C. Jothy. (India) Longmans, Green, 1933, \$2.00.

Jothy lives in a jungle village in South India and the opportunity of attending a mission school brings real happiness to her and her family. An excellent picture of the Indian life."

Harper, Theodore Acland. Windy Island. (New Zealand) Doubleday, Doran, 1931, \$2.00.

Bob Cornish, a sheep herder, in his strong love for his country portrays an excellent picture of the life and customs of New Zealand.4

Dalgliesh, Alice. Relief's Rocker. (Nova Scotia) Macmillan, 1932, \$1.75.

Glimpses of everyday living centered in a little girl, Relief Tucker, and her old-fashioned rocker.2

China

Ayscough, Florence. Firecracker Land. Houghton Mifflin, 1932, \$3.00.

Memories of a happy childhood in China have made this book very realistic. It deals with China of yesterday and today.4

Buck, Pearl S. The Young Revolutionist. John Day Co. 1932, \$1.50.

Authentic picture of Chinese youth torn by strife between the old and the new view of life.4

Flack, Marjorie. Story of Ping. Viking Press, 1933,

Ping, a Peking duckling, lives on a houseboat on the Yangtze river. An interesting picture of Chinese river life told with a keen sense of humor.1

Lattimore, Eleanor Frances. Little Pear. Harcourt Brace, 1931, \$2.00.

Lattimore, Eleanor Frances. Little Pear and his Friends. Harcourt, Brace, 1934, \$2.00.

Stories of a happy five year old boy whose natural curiosity led him into many adventures.²

Lewis, Elizabeth Foreman. Young Fu of the Upper Yangtze. Winston, 1932. \$2.50.

The realistic life of Young Fu, who worked as apprentice in a copper shop in Chungking. (Newbery prize for 1933).⁴

Sowers, Phyllis Ayer. Lin Foo and Lin Ching. Crowell, 1932, \$1.50.

Two orphan children, after being mistreated, leave their home to live with a cousin.2

Eskimo

Doone, Radko. Nuvat the Brave, an Eskimo Robinson Crusoe. Macrae, 1934, \$2.00.

An Eskimo boy known by his comrades as a coward proved, when necessity arose, to be the hero of the camp.³

Finland

Byrne, Bess S. With Mikko Through Finland. Mc-Bride, 1932, \$2.50.

The travels of a brother and sister who journey over Finland and Lapland with an old pedlar called Mikko.⁴

France

Brann, Esther. Yann and his Island. Macmillan, 1932, \$1.75.

Yann lived on a small island near the Breton coast. Finding a message in the ship-in-a-bottle started adventures.*

Brink, Carol Ryrie. Anything Can Happen on the River! Macmillan, 1934, \$1.75.

Jacques, a little orphan boy, obtains work on the river in order to look for the family's lost barge.⁴

Chamoud, Simone. Picture Tales from the French. Stokes, 1933, \$1.25.

Folk tales of the different provinces of France are told by grandpère.²

Ludmann, Oscar. Hansi the Stork. Whitman, 1932, \$1.00.

Simple story of Hansi, a stork with a broken wing, and Yerri, the little boy with whom he stayed in an Alsatian village.¹

Mulvaney, Mary Melanie (Dauteur). Joan and Pierre. Doubleday, Doran, 1931, \$2.00.

Joan, a little American girl, and Pierre, her French cousin, "sight see" and play in France.¹

Olcott, Virginia. Jean and Fanchon. Silver Burdett, 1931, \$.80.

Into this story of Jean's and Fanchon's happy doings, a great deal of French history, legends, and customs is introduced.⁸

Germany

Harper, Bertha Tauber. When I Was a Girl in Bavaria. Lothrop, 1932, \$1.25.

Life in Munich with its art, education and good times as seen by the author when a young girl.³

Hill, Helen, and Maxwell, Violet. Rudi of the Toll Gate. Macmillan, 1932, \$1.75.

The story of a present day boy Rudi, who lives with his mother and grandfather in a tower of the main gate of an old medieval town in Germany.⁸

Lehman, Agnes C. Milly and her Village. Macmillan, 1931, \$1.50.

A story of customs and manners of a present day town on the Rhine.⁸

Peck, Anne Merriman. Young Germany. McBride, 1931, \$2.50.

The author portrays the youth of Germany at work and play.

Olcott, Virginia. Karl and Gretel. Silver Burdett, 1932, \$.80.

Another book of Virginia Olcott's series, showing native life and customs in Germany. Slight plot.³

Siebe, Josephine. The Hay Village Children. Houghton Mifflin, 1932, \$2.00.

This recent translation by F. J. Olcott retains the humorous and pathetic happenings of little German boys and girls.⁸

Hungary

Finta, Alexander. The Herdboy of Hungary. Harper, 1933, \$2.50.

Since Sandor refused to study, he was sent to the country to be trained as a herdboy. During many amusing and pathetic trials Sandor decides schooling would be a pleasure.⁶

McNeer, May Ward. Tinka, Minka, and Linka. Knopf, 1931, \$1.75.

Three cunning little girls who live in Hungary with their parents who are toymakers.¹

Italy

Brock, Emma L. The Greedy Goat. Knopf, 1931, \$1.75.

Anna Marie, a bad goat whose pranks are told in an amusing way.¹

Brandeis, Madeline. Little Tony of Italy. Grosset, 1934. \$50.

Adventures of a little beggar boy of Naples and the white dog Tina.⁸

Brann, Esther. Nicolina. Macmillan, 1931, \$2.00.

The story of a little Italian girl who lives in the mountain village of Ronta near Florence.⁸

Islands

Blanding, Don. Stowaways in Paradise. (Hawaii) Cosmopolitan, 1931, \$2.50.

Boys will be intensely interested in the diving, the different forms of amusement, and the many kinds of fish near Hawaii.

Bontemps, Arna, and Hughes, Langston. Popo and Fifina. (Haiti) Macmillan, 1932, \$1.50.

Popo and Fifina are two little black children who live on the island of Haiti. Their story is told vividly and sympathetically.

Kahmann, Chesley. Felita. (Porto Rico) Doubleday, Doran, 1932, \$2.00.

Felita, a little Porto Rican girl, helped her family rise from its contented state of dependence on others to independence.⁴

Sperry, Armstrong. One Day with Manu. (Bora Bora) Winston, 1933, \$2.00.

Sperry, Armstrong. One Day with Jambi. (Sumatra) Winston, 1934, \$2.00.

The colorful illustrations in these books help to present boys' everyday life on the islands of the South Seas.¹

Tietjens, Eunice. Boy of the South Seas. Coward-Mc-Cann, 1931, \$2.50.

The adventure of Teiki, a young Polynesian boy with something of the folklore and customs of the people of the South Seas.^a

Japan

LeBert, Mae V. The Sandman: his Japanese Stories. L. C. Page, 1931, \$1.75.

Fairy tales giving intimate glimpses into the Japanese life.^a

Means, Florence Crannell. Rainbow Bridge. Friendship Press, 1934, \$1.50.

A Japanese doctor and his family transported to Colorado have many difficulties adjusting their lives to American ways. The Rainbow bridge is symbolic of international friendship.^a

Mexico

Peck, Anne Merriman. Young Mexico. McBride. 1934, \$2.50.

The interesting markets, open air schools, and the manner of living in the provinces of our fascinating "next door neighbor." This is Mexico of today.

Smith, Nora Archibald. Bee of the Cactus Country. Houghton Mifflin, 1932, \$1.75.

A little Mexican girl who lives with her mother, uncle, dog and a parrot in an adobe hut.²

Thomas, Margaret Loring. The Burro's Moneybag. Abingdon Press, 1931, \$1.00.

Little Pedro works hard to earn the ten pesos necessary to buy a burro.⁸

Netherlands

King, Marian. Kees and Kleintje. Whitman, 1934.
\$2.00.

Kees, that jolly little Dutch boy, and his pet duck Kleintje have further adventures which will delight the young readers of "Kees."²

Lehman, Agnes C. Betje and Jan. Coward-McCann, 1932, \$1.75.

A picture of Volendam, an old-fashioned town on the Zuyder Zee, as seen through the eyes of a small boy and girl.³

Olcott, Virginia. Klaas and Jansje. Silver, Burdett, 1933, \$.76.

Klaas and his little cousin Jansje have good times together on the farm, at school, and on their vacation at the dairy farm.

Peck, Anne Merriman, and Johnson, Enid. Wings over Holland. Macmillan, 1932, \$2.00.

Hendrik's adventures in the land of waterways and dikes will seem real to an American boy.^a

Palestine

King, Marian. Amnon, a Lad of Palestine. Houghton Mifflin, 1931, \$1.75.

A story of the good times Amnon had with his goat and his shepherd friend Ben-Ami.³

Persia

Mirza, Youel B. Children of the Housetops. Doubleday, Doran, 1931, \$2.00.

By watching Shirin perform her daily tasks, the home life of the Persian is made real.⁴

Ratzesberger, Anna. Ali Hassan. Whitman, 1933, \$1.00.

The exciting story of a little Persian boy surrounded by the romance of the making of Oriental rugs.^a

Poland

Kelly, Eric. The Christmas Nightingale. Macmillan, 1932, \$1.25.

Three stories from Poland describing that country's manner of celebrating Christmas.³

Roumania

Miller, Elizabeth Cleveland. Young Trajan. Doubleday, Doran, 1931, \$2.00.

A little Roumanian girl, living in an industrial

school, is able to aid her lover Trajan to improve the living conditions of their countrymen.⁴

Russia

Haskell, Helen Eggleston. Katrinka Grows Up. Dutton, 1932, \$2.00.

Life of a member of the Imperial ballet just before and during the Russian revolution. (Sequel to Katrinka).⁴

Haskell, Helen Eggleston. Peter, Katrinka's Brother. Dutton, 1933, \$2.00.

Communistic Russia as seen through the eyes of Katrinka's brother Peter, an ardent supporter of the cause.

Kennell, Ruth Epperson. Vanya of the Streets. Harper, 1931, \$2.00.

A story of Vanya's struggle for existence as a member of one of the "wolf packs" of homeless children and the aid given him by the Young Pioneers.

Siam

Sowers, Phyllis Ayer. Nam and Deng. Crowell, 1933, \$1,50.

A story of two children of Siam, their schoollife, the kidnapping of Nam and the coming-of-age party of Deng.*

Scandinavia

Burglon, Nora. Children of the Soil. Doubleday, Doran, 1933, \$2.00.

Two little Scandinavians with the imaginative aid of a tomte (elf) and hard labor help to make a happy farm home.

Cautley, Marjorie. Building a House in Sweden. Macmillan, 1931, \$1.75.

Moder, Fader Osterman, and the three little Ostermans move from crowded Stockholm to a country place where the children have delightful times.²

Chevalier, Ragnhild. Wandering Monday, and Other Days in Old Bergen. Macmillan, 1931, \$1.75.

Very happy stories of the author's family and home in Norway.⁸

D'Aulaire, Ingri and Edgar. Ola. Doubleday, Doran, 1934. \$2.00.

Adventures of Ola, a little Norwegian boy, as he travels over the Land of the Midnight Sun.¹

Geijerstam, Gustav Af. My Boys. Viking Press, 1933, \$2.00.

A realistic account of the summer of two little Swedish boys spent in a seaside village.

Hamsun, Marie. A Norwegian Farm. Lippincott, 1933, \$2.00.

Life on a Norwegian farm was full of work and play for the four young Langerud children.* Lattimore, Eleanor Frances. The Seven Crowns. Harcourt, Brace, 1933, \$1.75.

The little Danish girl Birgit had interesting shopping trips spending the crowns given to her on her birthday.

Lindegren, Signe. Ingrid's Holidays. Longmans, 1932, \$2.00.

Unexpectedly left without funds while her mother is in a sanitarium, Ingrid supports herself by working in a factory. Realistic story of the life of modern girls in Sweden.⁴

Moeschlin, Elsa. The Little Boy with the Big Apples. Coward-McCann, 1932, \$1.75.

A colorful picture book about Swedish life and a little Swedish goat-herd who dreamed of owning many, many apples.¹

Scott, Gabriel. Kari. Doubleday, Doran, 1931, \$2.00. Kari, a little Norwegian girl, shows an individuality of mind and character. Delightful and simple style.³

Spain

Mabry, Caroline. Castles in Spain. Whitman, 1933, \$1.00.

This is a whimsical story picturing the habits and customs of Spain. Attractive illustrations.³

Perkins, Lucy Fitch. Spanish Twins. Houghton Mifflin, 1934. \$1.75.

Another twin book. A story of Carlos and Filipe, who lived with their aunt Doña Maria in an old inn in southern Spain.³

Sawyer, Ruth. Toño Antonio. Viking Press, 1934, \$1.75.

Necessity forces Toño Antonio, a little Spanish peasant boy, to travel to the city to sell goat's milk. A charming Christmas story.⁸

Switzerland

Crew, Helen Coale. Peter Swiss. Harper, 1934, \$1.75. The story of Peterkin, a Swiss boy, and his

The story of Peterkin, a Swiss boy, and his varied experiences in town and country culminating in the reconciliation of his two estranged brothers.

Syria

Purnell, Idella. Little Yusuf. Macmillan, 1931, \$1.75.

Yusuf, a little Syrian boy, lives on a farm but plans for the time when like his uncle he can be a trader with a caravan of camels.³

More Than One Country

Cole, Walter. A.B.C. Book of People. Minton, Balch, 1932. \$2.50.

Pictures and descriptions of people in different lands. For instance A stands for Arab, B for Briton, etc.^a

(Continued on page 194)

Why a New Story of Roland?*

VIRGINIA MACMAKIN COLLIERT

In reading the legends of Roland with a group of children I found them at once interested and bewildered. They were deeply impressed by a hero who personified, above everything, courage. Here was a boy who was doing something every minute and whose courage never failed him. But the combination of plausibility and fancy in the stories was confusing.

Fairy queens, dragons, sorcerers and magicians bobbed up, unexplained happenings took place, new heroes appeared to crowd Roland off the page. Each thing was interesting in itself but the whole was a jumble. "I wish," said one of the children, "that we knew the *real* story of Roland." It was in the hope of satisfying this demand that I wrote, with Jeanette Eaton, *Roland the Warrior*.

Grown people who are intensely interested in the present, turn irresistibly to the past. For one thing, the past gives the sense of unity and continuity that holds them steady in the confusing events of the present.

I believe a child feels about this exactly as a grown-up does. Starting with the present, the here and now, his interest soon reaches back into the past in an effort to establish his connection with what went before. He desires to feel himself a part of the long human endeavor. If not, why does he ask, "What did you do when you were little?" and follow up this question with another, "What do you suppose it was like when Granny was a child?"

Now the question had been asked,

"What was it like when Roland was a boy?" Here was a command to bring from the shadows of obscurity into the brightness of reality, an age when action was glorious and the great human virtue was courage.

"Such an age as this," I thought, "particularly belongs to children, because like them, it is sturdy, simple and direct." Nevertheless I was a little daunted at the prospect of making a legendary hero of the Middle Ages come to life. It was rather a large order to go back eleven hundred years to one of the darkest periods of history to find reality. I knew, as the scholars warned, that, thanks to the quantity of solid evidence which remains from earlier times, it would be far easier to pry into the personal history of a Greek or Roman boy. But the challenge to discover the "real" Roland was an irresistible

What history has to say of Roland is brief and bare. It merely tells that he was Count of the Breton marches and died with others of Charlemagne's vassals at Roncevaux in 778. This is all. But the songs which make of him a bright, brave figure center also about the historic character of Charlemagne. To the great king whose real activities were epic in their scope, the song makers gave a dearly beloved nephew, Roland, the valiant young companion who shared his zeal and courage. Here, then, was a clue. The real story of Roland lay in Charlemagne's time.

Despite the devastating hordes that swept through Europe after Charlemagne's death, burning, pillaging and destroying, an inspiring record of the great king's activities remains. His own letters and the annals of his secretary, Eginhard, mirror the vigor and variety of

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his interests. Historians through the ages have seized upon his compelling figure for their studies. Carefully compiled volumes and prints in the great libraries of Europe give a glimpse of the manners and customs of his time. Patient search in museums reveals a few of those literal objects that unite us to the past—yellowed ivory gaming pieces, jeweled bookcovers, carved hunting horns. Little by little the parts of

the puzzle came to hand.

In the old *chansons de geste* themselves I discovered an equally precious record. Feeling my way through the centuries I found that the older the song the more lifelike were the people and the more vivid were the places described in it. It was plain that those who made these early songs knew how men felt and thought and acted. It was plain too, that they had either seen, or had talked with people who had seen, the places they described. They had no need of magicians or fairy gardens because to them the reality was still vivid. This is why the oldest songs are the most beautiful—the men who sang them were nearest to the times they glorified and so were nearest to the truth.

The oldest and most beautiful of all the songs, that one which tells of Roland at Roncevaux, is described by Joseph Bèdier, the great student of the Middle Ages, as "supremely representing the pre-occupations of the age in which it was written." No wonder the old songs are so full of fighting! This was an inevitable condition of life in the early Middle Ages. But if the people who fight are real, even the child who thinks war today is "silly" can understand this element of the story and accept it in its historical place in the picture.

Altogether I found that in this early epoch the line between fact and legend is less sharp than one would at first suppose. Therefore I laid aside the later, more fanciful legends and followed such simple, early ones as accord in spirit with the

historical period from which Roland

sprang.

And now I was ready to leave the printed script and seek reality in the places visited by my hero. I was living in Europe at the time. For a long while I had been aware that the green fields, the blue sky, the hills and the rivers that I saw, were the very ones a king and a boy had gazed upon eleven hundred years before. They and their companions of the Middle Ages were especially congenial to me, a slightly homesick American. For in their lusty intentness on the moment, their crude joy in activity, their single hearted drive after a goal, I recognized my own race. It was not difficult to draw near them, in imagination.

Yet I was scarcely prepared for the thrill of realization that swept over me at Aix-la-Chapelle. Aix, "sweet Aix" that Charlemagne loved above all his homes, lies just over the border of France, in Germany. In the streets of the cheerful modern spa that is Aix today, I passed gay, chatting people on their way to drink or bathe in the same medicinal waters that so pleased Charlemagne. Down in the old town I looked up at the square tower of the Rathaus and saw plainly the irregular line where the crumbling brick of Charlemagne's building remains. His palace had stood just here. Down a sunny slope I saw that his favorite spring was still popular. There across an open space was the famous eight sided cathedral, not his to be sure, but restored after a fire, according to his plan. Entering the cathedral I pushed open the same sturdy bronze doors that had swung back at his touch.

In the Rathaus at Aix is a wooden model of the palace and cathedral as they were in Charlemagne's time. After studying the model carefully, I climbed to the top of one of the green hills that encircles the town. From this vantage point it was easy to look down and reconstruct Charlemagne's city. There was the quadrangle

where his workers came and went. There, the forecourt where visitors from afar arrived, bearing gifts—the great elephant, the strange clock, precious manuscripts, and jeweled armor. And everywhere, of course, I saw the boy Roland, hot headed, impetuous, impatient for action and glory, but valiant to the end.

In Vienne I had a different experience. Vienne, on the river Rhone just below Lyons, is where, in the legend, Charlemagne besieges the stubborn Girard and Roland and Oliver fight the famous duel. At first Vienne appeared to have nothing for me. The curator of the museum whom I sought out immediately, more than once repeated, "Rien existe pas, Madame." True, there had never been a marble palace here, and the flimsy wooden buildings of the Middle Ages had long since vanished. Yet as I wandered up and down the steep sloped city I thought, "Surely the trouvères who made the song came here." For everything about Vienne fits the legend. It has a proud citadel hill above the Rhone, a vast plain beyond for an encamping army, a blossoming orchard beneath the walls for the meeting between Roland and Oliver. Even the green isle in the river is there.

But Vienne had something for me more precious even than external appearances. Actually, it was an important Roman city long before Charlemagne's time. Following in the wake of the curator who was bent on showing me the Roman restorations I suddenly realized that here was something which I shared with the people of my story. The curator told me exactly what part of the Roman city was known to the men of the Middle Ages. This, then, was history to them as it was to me. For a moment we stood together on common ground and looked back at the past!

When I left Vienne I carried away in my pocket still another link between me and the "real" Roland. It was a thin silver coin marked CARLUS REX, one of Charlemagne's deniers. It jingled in my purse as it had jingled in some mediaeval purse eleven hundred years before.

The great forest of Compiegne, the damp crypt of St. Denis, majestic Rome, Sutri, Reggio at the foot of Aspremont, Laon above the plain, Rheims, Poitiers, Bordeaux, each of the old places worked its magic spell and yielded up some bit of truth. Their mere spread on the map of Europe revealed something of the epic sweep of both history and legend. In a steadily mounting climax my long pilgrimage came to an end at Roncevaux itself.

Roncevaux where Roland and Oliver and the brave vassals of Charlemagne perished, is in Spain, only half a day's motor ride from the busy French border. Yet a modern motor car must struggle to gain the grim heights above the hamlet of Roncevaux. I paused before the old collegiate church to listen to men's voices in deep toned song, the kind of song that often must have inspired Charlemagne. Then I continued the steep, upward climb.

At last the tortuous pass lay below me. Mountains interlocked and overlay one another. Valley dropped below valley. Peering down into the abyss it was impossible not to see the Saracen hordes that poured from every crack and cranny to fall upon Roland and his desperate little band of defenders of the Christian faith. Two figures, Roland and Oliver, stood out clearly from the rest. I saw them first in dispute over the blowing of the horn, then united in a last stand against the forces that overwhelmed them. In the end I saw Roland alone, wounded to death, stumbling through the valley among his slain companions, searching for the body of Oliver, his beloved friend.

Turning away from the moving scene I made obeisance to the trouvère who first made the epic song of Roland at Roncevaux. He had succeeded in translating the emotion aroused by the tragic grandeur of

How Much Word Knowledge Do Children Bring to Grade One?*

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OW MUCH word knowledge do children bring to grade one? This is a question that makers and users of primary books have been asking ever since it was realized that we should teach beginners to recognize only those words of which they already knew the meaning. Until recently the persons concerned sought to answer this question chiefly by relying upon their personal knowledge of six-year-olds. This method had two distinct defects. First, authors, editors, and teachers are likely to have children distinctly above average in mental age and in opportunity for learning. Second, if these persons attempted to make allowance for the greater advancement of their own children and to get down to the level of the average child, they made an over-adjustment. They knew that their own children had been to zoos and menageries, but they assumed the average child of six knew only horse, cow, dog, and cat. They knew their own children ate a dozen varieties of fruit, but assumed the average child knew only apple or banana. This over-emphasis upon the narrowness of the average child's experience has tended to a certain poverty of content which anyone may note by reading a dozen primary books.

Not believing that anyone who knows children can tell which words are familiar to them, a few people set out to record

words used by children. Some decades ago proud parents began to list all the words used by their children from day to day and month to month. Then kindergarten workers sat with pencil and pad and recorded all the language used by their children. Yet two limitations lessen the value of all this painful recording. First, kindergarten or home environment could not possibly cause children to use all the words they might be able to use, and second, no amount of recording can tell us all the words of which children know the meaning. The makers of the well-known Kindergarten Union List sought to avoid these limitations by securing children's spoken responses to certain pictures, in this way bringing out many words not used in the kindergarten or home environment. Yet these investigators say "There may be many well-known words in the kindergarten child's vocabulary not shown in this picture list because there was no picture to stimulate the use of them."

An interesting attempt to reach into this reservoir of word knowledge which is little touched by the recording of speech has been made by Sangren in his "Information Tests for Young Children." These tests constitute a sample of the child's knowledge concerning nature, city environment, the household, and some other fields. They are intended, however, to compare children with one another and not to make a survey of children's word knowledge. They constitute a sampling,

^{*} Read before the joint meeting of the National Conference on Research in Elementary School English and the American Educational Research Association, St. Louis, Missouri, February 25, 1936.

and in the field of vocabulary it is not safe to reason from a sample to the whole. For instance, if we prove that children know what the mailman does, we cannot reason that they know what the policeman does. If they know a cup and a glass, we cannot argue that they know a pitcher. The method of sampling assumes a relatively homogeneous mass of material, in which one part can fairly represent the rest. Children's word knowledge cannot be so described. It is true that the method of sampling of the dictionary or of the Thorndike list, and the like, may tell us roughly how many words children know. It cannot tell us which words, however,

and that is our problem. From the experience so far discussed, we may derive two principles for the measuring of children's word knowledge on entering school. (1) We must discover what words children know rather than merely which words they use. (2) We must cover all of children's experience, and not merely that of home, school, or other selected environment. To these must be added a third. (3) We must specifyhow much meaning we shall accept as word knowledge. Here is a major difficulty in testing that has never been adequately recognized either by teachers or investigators. Do children know what a policeman is if they think of him only as a man in a blue uniform? Do they know an oak if they know only that it is some kind of tree? Since the fundamental characteristic of word meaning is continual growth from the first vague familiarity ever toward the full and exact concept of the expert, we can never deal accurately with meaning unless we recognize stages in meaning development. Of course we have always recognized these stages in a rough and general way. When we have read to small children stories about kings, we have realized that the children looked at the pictures and listened to the tale and carried away the idea that a king was a

man who wore robes and a crown and gave orders which others had to obey. We have also realized that later, from history stories, the children added the notion that the king was generally a bad individual, guilty of selfishness and injustice. We know that it is only much later that children realize what the true place of a king has been and is in human affairs. This development is very clear in the case of the word "king," but it goes on with practically every other word as well. When we ask if a child knows a word at the age of six, we must also specify how much meaning we shall require as word knowledge.

These three principles of (1) word knowledge rather than word usage, (2) survey rather than sampling, and (3) specifying degree of meaning, have been our guide in the beginning of a research into the question of "How much word knowledge do children bring to grade one?" A fourth principle will be mentioned later. The first principle, stated completely is, "We must discover what words children know rather than merely which words they use." Our methods had also to apply the second principle, "We must cover all of children's experience, not merely that with a selected environment." It was impossible to meet both these requirements by use of pictures, situations, leading questions, or anything of the kind. It was necessary to present, as a stimulus situation, all the words which any large number of children might conceivably be familiar with. Such a method would certainly investigate words known rather than words used and would constitute a survey rather than a sampling.

According to this plan, the first problem was to secure a testing list. The best beginning for such a list seemed to be the list of the Child Study Committee of the International Kindergarten Union, which is called *The Vocabulary of Children Be*fore Entering the First Grade. This comprises the most common words from three studies of actual child usage, one of 4,736 words used in home situations, a second of 7,186 different words used in kindergarten, and a third of 5,150 different words used in response to pictures. The list as published has about 2,600 entries. Since we wished only the basic meanings, we eliminated contractions, inflections, slang, nonsense words, and proper nouns, leaving a total of 1,759. This group of words seemed to have a sound and solid basis in children's experience.

It may at once be asked, "Why test whether children know these words? Does not appearance of a word on the list prove that six year old children know it?" Here we must strongly emphasize the weakness of all word counts, that they include many words used by only a handful of children. The group of 2,600 words on the published kindergarten list includes words used by as few as seven children. We are not told how many children contributed to the list, but there must have been hundreds. The seven who used some of the words may have been no more than one per cent of all the group. This is exactly the situation found in all other word counts of children's usage. Tidyman published 3,000 commonest words found in 50,000 children's themes. His 3,000 include words used by as few as five children. He does not say how many children wrote themes, but the five who used some of his words must have been far less than one per cent of the total. The same fact stands out in other word counts. If we record words which children happen to use, we find that they do not happen to use the same ones. It is valuable, of course, to know that one per cent of a group of children use a word rather than none of them use it. That a certain word is used by two different children instead of only one is still more significant. One occurrence might be explained by mere chance; two occurrences suggest some experience which is common to a group. But we can-

not base upon such evidence that conclusion as to what words most children use or know. "Most children" must mean at least more than half, and probably three out of four. Here is the fourth principle for vocabulary investigation: "The number or per cent of children who are found to know the word must be specified." In this investigation, the number was specified as 75 out of 100. One hundred children is a small number if we think of the total, but it is very large when we consider the practice of word counts of accepting words used by two or three children. Seventy-five out of one hundred, or three out of four, is an arbitrary proportion, but it allows for a preponderance of three to one of children knowing the word over children not knowing it. When we consider the enormous differences between the experiences of children of any age or school grade, the requirement that three out of four must agree seems quite a rigid one.

If not all of the Kindergarten Union List could be accepted as known according to this standard, surely some of them could be. The list presents frequencies for individual words. If we knew the total number of children contributing words, we could figure out the per cent of the total that had known each word. However, the number of children is not given, and if it were, we could not be sure that each frequency represented use by a different child. It does seem possible, however, to reason that the words used a great many times were known to a large per cent of the children. For instance, "and" was used 11,737 times; "in" was used 6,016 times; "known" was used 2,067 times; "went" was used 1,312 times. Such words were surely known to most of the children. By the same reasoning, we can go down to smaller frequencies. "Home" was used 918 times. "Pretty" was used 543 times. "Please" was used 334 times. In this way we may gradually go to lesser

frequencies, though with less and less certainty that we have words known to "most" six-year-olds. Since there was no way of calculating a percentage on any word, it was arbitrarily decided that we would consider as known to three children out of four all words which appeared with a frequency of 100 or more on the Kindergarten Union list. To check this decision, the words were listed and submitted to ten first grade teachers. Each teacher was asked to strike out any word which she was not absolutely sure three out of four of her first grade entrants already knew. None were struck off. The 510 words thus secured were accepted as a known list that did not need to be tested.

When the known list, just described, was subtracted from the Kindergarten Union list of 1,759 words, the remainder might have formed a testing list, but it was not a fully satisfactory one. It did not include all the words that the six-yearold might know. It did not include "stumble," or "mirror," or dozens of other words that most beginners might know the meaning of. A much wider list was needed if we were to satisfy the second principle, that "we must cover all of children's experience." Fortunately the means for securing such a list was at hand. It consisted of the topical word groupings of the Combined Word List. We must explain what those groupings were.

The Combined Word List, which is now in press, resulted from a combination of Thorndike's twenty thousand, Horn's ten thousand, the nine thousand from the Free Association Study, and words from eight other investigations. The Combined Word List therefore seemed certain to include all the words with which children were ever likely to come in contact. It therefore formed the ideal basis for a testing list. Before the present study was made, this great reservoir of word meanings had been classified

into 305 topical groups which ranged in size from thirty words to about eighty words each. These groups had been developed from the natural relationships between the words themselves, since no adequate classification could be found. For instance, there were 80 words dealing only with eyes and sight. There were 58 words dealing with fruits, 78 words dealing with courts and trials, 40 words dealing with wind and storms, and so on through the whole range of human experience. These topical groups also included more than one meaning for each word form. Each word had been looked up in the dictionary and the commoner meanings selected. These different meanings had been topically classified. For instance, the word "hide" appeared twice, once in one group with the meaning "conceal," and again in another group as the "hide of an animal."

The topical word groups were used to secure the basic testing list in the following manner. Let us consider the group of 30 terms dealing with the topic, "shoes." We find in this group only one word on the known list from the Kindergarten Union Study, just explained; that is, the word "shoe" itself. We then chose from the rest of the group all words that might conceivably be known by any large percentage of children. There were 18 such words. Incidentally, only four of these 18 were found to be known to 75 out of 100 children. In like manner, each group tested was studied to see what words could possibly be known to first grade entrants. All words that offered any remote possibility were tested.

Use of the topical word groupings in securing a basic testing list made it possible to observe the principle of survey rather than sampling. If we used the topical groups relating to clothing, we would be sure of having covered the subject, since those groups contained all the words in the Combined Word List dealing with

clothing. The same would be true of the topics of medicine or building material, or what not. We have said that we are reporting the beginning of a research as to what word meanings children bring to grade one. This means that we have completed the testing of a number of fields but it will naturally take considerable time to cover all of the 305 word groups.

Having discussed the first two principles, knowledge rather than use, and survey rather than sampling, let us turn to the third, "How much knowledge would we require before accepting a word as known?" This amount was somewhat different for the two kinds of tests used. First, as many words as possible were tested by a picture test, the child being expected to point out an object in a picture or to select the picture of the object from a group of pictures. It was decided to pronounce the word for the child, as to do so would bring out more word knowledge, and the method would be more like the reading situation. In beginning reading, the teacher is likely to tell the word or the child will hear the word read by another. Therefore the question will be whether the sound suggests the meaning. If this investigation were to have application to reading, it should present a similar situation.

Words which could not very well be tested by pictures were tested by what may be called the explanation method. The word was given and the child was asked to tell what the thing was. Here the word was considered known if the child showed what might be called the "first degree of meaning." This meant we would accept the first and simplest idea which a child would be likely to get about the word. For instance, the first idea a child would secure about a "willow" would be that it was some kind of a tree. His first idea of "cloak" would be that it was something to wear. In many cases, of course, it was hard to tell just what the

first degree of meaning would be, and an arbitrary decision was required. In the case of certain word groups, we also found it advisable to specify a degree of meaning beyond the first degree. For instance, we asked the children to tell what animal made certain sounds, such as a "croak," or a "quack." The first degree of meaning would have been merely to identify these as sounds. The second was to know that they were sounds made by animals. To identify the kind of animal would be at least a third degree. Obviously the picture test often required more than the first degree of meaning, but that test was also kept as simple as possible. The picture called for no fine distinctions between a thing and other things very similar to it.

Having developed the four principles which we were to follow, we may now describe the actual testing and its results. The first word groups to be tested were the ones that seemed to have the closest relation to children's reading. They were animals, recreation, clothing, and house and home. The sizes of these groups and of the respective test lists are given on pages 182 and 183. Because these topics were close to children's lives, a rather large per cent of the total word groups was tested. This would not be true of groups concerning adult interests.

The subjects upon whom these words were tested were the children in the first grade (omitting repeaters) in a town of 30,000 people, chiefly of American stock, which affords living conditions perhaps midway between the very urban conditions of a crowded city and the rural conditions of the smaller town. The conditions of the farm home were not at all represented. The Middle West is represented rather than the Atlantic Seaboard, the South, or the West. In this town, six schools were used that ranged in social background from that of the well-to-do to that of the laboring class. Care was

taken that these economic backgrounds were equally represented. The tester went from school to school, testing ten children at one school and then going on to ten children at the next school, alternating good district and poor. The remarkable thing, however, was that on most matters tested, the schools agreed with one another, regardless of the part of town.

SIZE OF GROUP AND TEST LISTS

Group	Words in Group	Words on Test List	Per Cent
Animals	619	171	27
Recreation	572	136	23
Clothing	339	113	33
House and Home	423	189 -	44
Totals	1953	609	Av. 31

Because individual testing is very expensive, the elimination method of testing was used. This method was suggested after ten children each from three schools, or thirty children in all, had been tested. It was found that by this time, many words were already unknown to 26. Since these words could therefore never be known to 75 out of 100, they were dropped at once. At the same time it was apparent that many words would reach 26 unknown long before 100 children were tested. How could such words be selected? The probable error of the percentage reached, as given by Kelly, was used. It is found by taking the square root of the obtained per cent times its complement, divided by the number of cases. For instance, suppose that when 30 had been tested, 18 did not know the word. That would be 60% not knowing. The probable error of 60% in this case is six. If we take three times this probable error both above and below 60%, we get a range of from 42% to 78%. Now we are assured that the chances are 42 to one that no matter how long we tested that word, the result would be between 42% and 78%. Since 26 out of 100, or 26%,

will drop the word, and the chances are 42 to one that the per cent is going to be more than that, we were able to drop the word at once. Following this principle of probability, after each testing of ten children those words were eliminated that, by 42 chances to one, would be unknown to 26% or more of the children.

The same plan of elimination was used for the words that seemed to be known to most of the children. If, after 30 were tested, 27 children knew the word, it was figured out by the probable error of the percentage that the chances were 42 to one that the ultimate percentage would be at least 78. Since we needed only a percentage of 75, such words could very safely be accepted as known, and eliminated from the testing. On this principle, and with the chances 42 to one, words were accepted after each testing of ten children. Of course the words dropped out or were accepted only gradually. Some remained doubtful longer than others, and some were undecided until the very last set of ten children were tested.

The testing ran during the whole of the first semester of school simply because, when one child is taken at a time, there is no way of hurrying the process. One highly experienced tester, of distinct ability in making contact with small children, did all the work. It is so difficult to get reliable responses from beginners in grade one that inexperienced persons cannot be used for this purpose. However, on the topics taken up, the few months of school experience made no difference. In the few cases where one school may have taught one of the words, the testing of that school was disregarded. Teaching done in the school showed up immediately in the marked change in the records, since normally, from school to school, the percentages were remarkably the same.

What, then, are the results of this attempt to secure, by the most valid means possible, information as to "How much word knowledge do children bring to grade one?" First, we can give the summary figures for the four groups tested.

WORDS KNOWN TO BEGINNERS IN GRADE ONE

	Words accepted because 100 on K. U. List	Words found known to 75%	Total
Animals	25	54	79
Recreation	10	67	77
Clothing	13	71	84
House and Hom	ie 18	95	113
Totals	66	287	353

From this beginning, what may we say about the final tested beginners' vocabulary that will result when the testing is done? We cannot argue from the percentage found in each group, since this will vary from group to group. For instance, the children knew 8% of the total of 619 words in the animal group, but we would not expect them to know 8% of the words dealing with courts and law. We might argue, however, from the words accepted from the Kindergarten Union List. In the four groups

tested, there were 66 such words. For each of these, a little over four additional words (4.3) were found to be known. Perhaps the same proportion might hold for the rest of the 510 words accepted because they appeared at least 100 times in the Kindergarten Union Study. In that case, the total final tested list would be 2,193. Adding the 510 "known" words, we would have a beginners' vocabulary of 2,703. This number is remarkably close to current estimates, as it has been calculated from various types of data that children entering school know from 2,000 to 3,000 words. Yet these 2,703 words would not be similar to other vocabulary lists, chosen from the most frequent end of a group of many thousand found used by some children. It would be 2,703 words that had been determined according to the four principles laid down: (1) words known rather than used, (2) words resulting from a survey of experience rather than a sampling of it, (3) words with a specified degree of meaning, and (4) words known to a definite percentage and number of children.

WHY A NEW STORY OF ROLAND?

(Continued from page 176)

this place into a matchless story of human courage. No wonder weary pilgrims lingered long about the monastery fire to hear it sung again and again. No wonder, several hundred years later, Norman hearts beat faster when Talifer sang it at their head. They marched to victory at the

battle of Hastings. England became Normanized. To the stirring measures of the old song the Anglo-Saxon race of which we Americans are a part was changed forever. My task was simply to brush off the cobwebs and bring the matchless epic back to reality.

Research Problems in Reading in the Elementary School

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(Continued from April)

Problems related to word analysis

1. Should phonics be taught? There is a general agreement among all authorities that some form of instruction in word mastery is necessary. There is also at present a widespread belief that word analysis instruction in any form is unnecessary. Sexton and Harron (87)1 in a study of approximately 1000 first grade children in equivalent groups, one under phonic instruction and one without such instruction, found no differences between the groups in the first five months but in the second five months the group with phonic instruction began to show superiority. The results of phonic instruction showed most clearly in the second grade.

2. What are the relative merits of different types of teaching phonics?

a. Intrinsic phonics. Gates (40) studied the relative merits of intrinsic and direct or sounding phonics. His study with 25 pairs of children in grade one disclosed differences favoring the intrinsic phonics group. His earlier study on 13 pairs showed differences in the same direction. None of the differences were statistically significant.

b. Direct or sounding phonics. Garrison and Heard (38) carried on an experimental study of the value of the teaching of direct phonics as compared to intrinsic phonics in

four classrooms as the children progressed through the primary grades. They found no significant differences in reading achievement between the experimental and the control groups. They observed the following tendencies, most of which should be verified by further research:

 Training in direct phonics made children more independent in pronunciation of words.

(2) Children with no phonic training made smoother and better readers in the lower grades.

(3) In grades one and two, bright children were helped more by phonics than were dull children. Phonic instruction appeared to be more effective in the latter part of the primary grades for all children.

(4) The children who had phonic training appeared to do better in spelling.

(5) The first grade children who had phonic training lost more in reading skill during the summer than the no-phonics group.

c. Silent visual analysis. This method was recommended by Wheat (104) but he presented no experimental evidence in regard to its merits.

d. In addition to the verification of the tendencies listed under the Garrison and Heard study, the following problems are suggested:

^{*} The Fourth Annual Bulletin of the National Conference on Research in Elementary School English.
¹ Parenthetical numbers refer to studies listed in the Bibliography. See the March Review.

(1) Are certain common phonic elements more easily acquired than others by the intrinsic method?

(2) What types of errors are related to different types of phonic instruction? On the basis of case studies, Durrell (31) reports that clinic children taught by the direct phonic methods usually showed labored analysis and word-byword reading, while those taught by intrinsic phonics made random guesses at unknown words with little regard for the word form.

(3) Do certain types of phonic instruction favor different levels of reading ability? What elements, if any, might be delegated to later grades or to the

kindergarten?

(4) Might exercises in the immediate use of phonic skills provide for greater transfer than present methods? Can more efficient phonic methods be de-

signed?

(5) Are certain children less capable of using different types of word analysis? Is a background in auditory discrimination of word elements essential to success in sounding methods? This might be indicated by Bond's (10) findings.

IV. MIDDLE GRADE READING PROBLEMS Problems of general methods

1. What are the fundamental skills to teach in these grades? Yoakam (109) lists eight major skills with sixty-three sub-skills. Wiley (106) presents an exhaustive list of approximately five hundred skills that should be mastered. Mc-Kee (70) proposes five types of reading

for middle grades, while Gates (43) lists four. There is an obvious need for a clarification of specific types of skills to be taught in middle grades. The following studies might be pertinent:

- a. Are the skills suggested by the various writers separate skills or do many of them duplicate each other? Gates (43) demonstrates by a statistical technique that his four types of tests measure different functions. The many other skills suggested should be evaluated.
- b. Are some of these skills psychologically in the same categories? Does instruction in one assure success in another?
- c. Are certain of these skills in opposed psychological categories, that is, does instruction in one skill tend to handicap performance in other skills? Instruction in scanning to locate information might, for example, tend to make reading for details more difficult for the child.
- d. What is the relative difficulty of teaching these skills? What is the most desirable order for teaching them? Are certain of them better suited to higher levels of intelligence?
- 2. Are gains in reading achievement greatly influenced by classroom techniques? Many studies (Lowry [67], Jacobs and Liveright [60], Roberts and Stone [84], Birdsall [8], Davis [23], Browning, Howard and Moderow [12]), report very rapid gains through intensive instruction of the "general drive on reading" sort without analyzing the relative contributions of the several factors which are involved. Case (17) reports that weekly bulletins sent to teachers resulted in rapid gains in sixth grade reading. Apparently any sort of drive on reading will result in gains. We need evidence, however, on the relative merits of the

various factors which produce these gains.

- 3. What techniques produce rapid gains in the rate of reading? The studies of Lowry (67) and O'Brien (78) demonstrate that various sorts of timed exercises in reading produce rapid growth in speed of reading. Since comprehension checks were used in these exercises, the gain in speed came without loss in comprehension. The following problems related to techniques of increasing speed of reading are suggested:
 - a. In preparing speed exercises, what types of material, what length of selection and what types of questions for comprehension produce the best results?
 - b. How often need speed drills be given to produce gains in reading rate?
 - c. What is the merit of phrase drills and in materials printed in phrases for producing gains in speed at this level? Robinson (85) reports rapid gains in reading speed on the college level through using timed drills on materials printed in phrases. Is this technique suited to the middle grades? How much of the gain is due to the timed drills and how much to the separation of phrases?

d. What are the merits of drills for increasing the eye-span?

e. What are the merits of pacing eye movements through various devices? Taylor (90) reports gains through the use of a variable tachistoscope which paces the eye movements. Is this a more efficient technique than other methods of increasing speed? Is there merit to the pacing drills provided by Pressey (82)?

4. Does reading guided by questions or problems produce better results than reading without such guidance? In a controlled experiment with 43 pairs of cases,

Holmes (55) shows that on the college level reading guided by questions is superior to reading and re-reading without questions. McKee (70) presents similar findings on the elementary school level. Yoakam (108) shows the relative ineffectiveness of a single reading without questions on certain types of material, and the slight gains made through rereading without direction. Both Yoakam (109) and Germane (47) indicate that study assignments are superior to reading without such guidance. The following problems are suggested for further investigation in this field:

a. What types of questions bring about greater gains and more permanent retention? It is conceivable that a few fact questions on a given assignment might make for superficiality rather than thoroughness in reading. Is a large number of specific questions superior to a few general study questions? What are the outcomes of different types of questions.

tioning?

b. Are certain types of questions more suited to some subjects than to others? Will a study of the objectives of teaching certain subjects indicate the types of questions that might be asked? McCallister (68) has observed the types of reading skills demanded in three classes, one in history, one in general science, and one in mathematics. Should a study of later needs in content subjects be undertaken in order to determine the types of reading required?

c. In what types of material and on what levels of material are questions and study exercises desirable? Yoakam (108) finds a single reading without guidance adequate in easy narrative material which is interest-

ing to the child.

d. What types of problem assignments make for the most effective reading?

- 5. What are the merits of standard test lessons, workbooks, and isolated exercises in specific skills? The studies of Roberts and Stone (84), Birdsall (8), and Davis (23) include the use of standard test lessons in bringing about improvement. The factor was not separated from the many other types of instruction, however. There seems to be little evidence in regard to the merits of standard test lessons, workbooks, or drills in specific skills in the improvement of comprehension in reading. Studies of some of the following problems should be made:
 - a. What are the values of standard test lessons and workbooks in middle grade reading? Do these exercises result in improvement in reading in the general classroom, or is their merit chiefly in giving drills in taking standard tests so that higher scores result?
 - b. What are the most beneficial exercises in such workbooks?
 - c. In what reading skills will occasional lessons produce results? What skills are not greatly influenced by isolated drills?
 - d. Is the merit of the workbook due to definiteness, novelty, length of exercise, motivation through knowledge of progress or competition, or to the type of questions and the material?
- 6. What are the best methods of securing recall from reading? Various methods are used for measuring recall of materials read. It is possible that reading might be thorough enough for one type of recall but not sufficiently thorough for others. Specific instruction in reading may be necessary for certain types of reproduction of materials read. The following are some of the types of reproduction of reading commonly found in classrooms: answering various types of fact questions; recognizing the truth or falsity of certain

statements; selecting the correct or best answer in a multiple choice situation; selecting materials pertinent to a general question; oral reproduction of parts of the material in detail; oral reproduction of the events in order of presentation in the material studied; oral summary of the entire lesson; written summaries, outlines, and various other types. The values of outlining and summarizing are indicated by the studies of Barton (3), Germane (47), and Newlun (77). The study of Dewey (26) using the Iowa Oral Language Recording Device described by Greene and Betts (51) indicated that different types of reproduction and different types of questions gave different results in evaluating the child's recall of material read. The following are some of the problems that need investigation:

- a. What is the relative order of difficulty of different types of questions? Standard tests commonly use the true-false or the multiple choice type of question, demanding only the identification of the correct answer. Is it possible that this type of question is on a mental level too low to be of practical value in the classroom? Questions which ask for summaries, interpretation, criticism, are probably on a much higher intellectual level.
- b. What are the differences in reproduction of material in unaided oral recall as compared to written recall? It is possible that recall may be facile in one method but labored in another.
- c. How does oral or written recall aided by questions compare to these types of recall without such aid?
- d. How does knowledge of the type of recall to be demanded affect the reading?
- e. Which of these skills require specific teaching and which require little or none?

- f. What types of exercises are best suited to developing these skills? What is the value of the following exercises: selection of topic sentences, the making of sentence summaries of paragraphs, underlining while reading, outlining or filling in incomplete outlines, taking notes of various types, and the writing of précis reports? What is the order of difficulty of these exercises? Which of them are the most valuable for later use in reading?
- 7. What are the skills which demand adaptation of the reading rate and type? Is specific instruction necessary for this adjustment? Undoubtedly specific instruction is required for many children in the rapid rates required for scanning, for locating information, for determining whether the material deals with the desired topic, etc. Perhaps specific instruction will be required in adjusting to the lower rates necessary for reading of drama, poetry, and unfamiliar or difficult materials. This field will require a number of investigations to determine differences in skills and in methods of teaching them. There appears to be no experimental treatment of this problem at present.

8. What are the different associational skills related to reading? How can these skills be measured? How can they be developed? Some of the problems that need investigation in this field are the follow-

ing:

a. Are there differences in sensory imagery of children reading the same material? What is the extent and nature of these differences? What are the techniques for determining these differences? What are the methods of improving sensory imagery? What is the value of such imagery and how does it relate to other reading skills?

b. Are there differences in the types

and amount of thought while reading? Is special instruction necessary for reading, for criticism, comparison, illustration, application, etc.? Some children are stimulated to activity or inquiry through reading while others are not. Is this habit a product of teaching?

9. What are the interest and habit outcomes of various types of reading instruction? What are the techniques of measuring these outcomes? Certainly there are few topics of greater importance than this one. Are reading tastes and reading habits changed more readily through one type of instruction in reading than through another? We appear to have little evidence on this point. Another related problem is that of teaching emotional control through reading. Can a child be taught to select materials for reading which will produce certain desired attitudes and emotions in himself?

10. What are the merits of different methods of developing meaning vocabulary? Thorndike (94) presents an excellent discussion but no evidence on the relative merits of extensive reading versus direct instruction in word meanings as a method of increasing vocabulary. Horn (57) also discusses problems related to the development of meaning vocabulary. Holmes (56) suggests that one of the difficulties in increasing vocabulary through extensive reading is that children tend to overlook new or difficult words. Several problems are suggested for study:

a. Will certain types of readers acquire greater vocabulary through extensive reading than through direct vocabulary instruction?

b. What methods of direct instruction in reading produce the greatest amount of transfer? Glossary? Dictionary work? Pre-lesson exercises?

c. Are word derivation exercises suitable materials for these grades?

d. What are the methods of teaching

- a child to get materials from context? What types of context cues are most satisfactory?
- e. Will reading on a controlled level through selection and rewriting of materials produce a greater vocabulary growth than the use of books with a heavy vocabulary burden?
- f. What types of exercises will produce attention to new or difficult words in reading?
- g. Which methods of instruction produce the greatest transfer to speech and writing vocabularies?
- 11. What are the relative difficulties of different forms of sentence structure? Thorndike (93) presents a classification of sentence structures and suggests that certain are more difficult than others. Is frequency of occurrence a sound basis for determining the difficulty of sentence structure? Can a scale of difficulty of sentence structure be built? Is there a proper order of introduction of different sentence structures? Do certain sentence structures require teaching? Are certain sentence structures more difficult to comprehend in reading than in speech? The study of Young (110) disclosed individual differences in the ability of children to understand materials presented orally and materials read, although the correlation between the two skills was high.
- 12. Are there word recognition and word mastery skills that should be taught at this level? Since mispronunciations and difficulty in recognition of word elements appear in the oral reading of children in the middle grades, should higher levels of word recognition be taught? What types of exercises are profitable? How much time should be devoted to the skill?
- 13. What are the values of oral reading in the middle grades? What types of instruction may be given? How much time should be devoted to it? What are

the demonstrable outcomes of such instruction?

14. What are the most serviceable techniques for locating information? What are the most efficient methods of teaching these techniques? McKee (70) presents an elaborate outline of techniques for teaching skills in the location of information but does not present evidence of the merits of the procedures suggested. What sorts of dictionary exercises and skills are suitable for middle grades? What are the most efficient steps to teaching these skills?

15. What are the best methods of caring for individual differences in these grades? As in the primary grades, the presence of individual differences in reading level and in learning rates is all too evident. All of the foregoing suggestions for investigations relate to this problem. We need evaluation of various measures, methods, materials and administrative devices for taking care of these differences in the middle grades.

Research under way on middle grade reading problems

1. At the University of Chicago, a research study relating to different methods of vocabulary instruction is in progress. Eleanor Holmes and Dr. W. S. Gray have carried on a three-year study of the relative efficiency of direct and indirect methods of developing a meaning vocabulary. The experiment was conducted in three sections of the fourth grade of the University Elementary School. The content material used was that of fourth grade history as prescribed in the course of study. One control and two experimental groups were involved. The results to date indicate that the direct method of developing meaning vocabulary is not only more effective in increasing a pupil's meaning vocabulary but also enlarges the range of words used in oral and written discourse and improves to an appreciable

extent both oral and silent reading achievement. It is hoped that the report will be finished and ready for publication within the next few months. Re-

ported by Dr. W. S. Gray.

2. At the University of Florida a study is in progress which deals with an attempt to determine the list of constructions in English which all children should be required to master. It is a study based on the list of 434 constructions compiled by Thorndike. Reported by Dr. A. R. Mead.

3. At Teachers College, Columbia University a study of the reading abilities of dull normal children is in progress. It is desired to determine pupils' difficulties in reading materials in the conventional course at each of these levels. Reported

by Dr. A. I. Gates.

4. At Boston University the battery for individual and group test analysis of reading difficulty in the middle grades described by Durrell (31) is being completed. Reported by Dr. D. D. Durrell.

5. At Boston University a study of the relative difficulty of sentence structures independent of vocabulary difficulties is under way. Reported by D. D. Durrell.

V. MISCELLANEOUS PROBLEMS

Materials of instruction in reading

Almost every problem listed in the sections dealing with primary and middle grade reading relates directly or indirectly to the preparation and evaluation of materials of instruction. Certain other fields for investigation relating to the preparation of materials should be indicated. Conflicting evidence on the optimum size of type for reading materials in the primary grades is presented by Buckingham (14) and Blackhurst (9). The values of different types of illustration is demonstrated by Bamberger (2). Whipple (105), brings up the practical point as to whether the money spent on colored illustrations might not at times be spent more wisely on additional text. Whipple

(105) lists ten problems in the field of the textbook which he feels need investigation.

Laboratory and physiological studies related to reading

An excellent treatment of physiological problems related to reading difficulty is found in the *Third Annual Research Bulletin* of this Conference. The work of Betts (5), Eames (32), Fendrick (33), Tinker (95), and Dearborn (24), disclose some of the problems of vision relating to reading. A number of problems in hearing as related to reading are outlined by Bond (10). The eye movement studies of Buswell (16) and Taylor (90) demonstrate the use of eye movement photography as a method of diagnosis and a measure of accomplishment in reading.

VI. SUGGESTIONS FOR RESEARCH METHODS

A large number of difficulties confront the person who attempts research in the complicated field of reading. The multiplicity of skills involved is indicated by the large number of research problems suggested in the foregoing sections of this bulletin. Considering the complicated nature of reading and the crudity of our present research instruments, it is not strange that the large amount of research reported has yielded relatively meager results. A few of the research articles reviewed were inconclusive because they failed to use the commonly accepted statistical procedures such as determining the statistical significance of differences and controlling variables through the use of equated or rotating groups. The value of a much larger number was diminished by certain conditions peculiar to research in the field of reading. The following are some of the difficulties encountered: (1) Inadequate instruments for equating groups and for studying the population at the beginning of the experiment; (2)

Difficulties in controlling variables during the experiment so that the significant factor or factors were evident; (3) Difficulties in adequate evaluation of outcomes.

Problems in equating groups and studying the population

There are a large number of factors that might well be taken into account when groups are being equated for experiments in reading. Their importance will vary with the nature of the element

being studied.

1. Differences in mental ability. We have no physiological measures of intelligence. Our present tests of intelligence for children of school age are largely measures of language comprehension. Items on many intelligence tests are almost identical to those on reading tests. The Stanford-Binet contains many items that are influenced by reading or by information ordinarily derived from reading. See Durrell (30). If we are to equate groups for reading experiments on the basis of mental ability we should have measures of mental ability which do not involve such large amounts of reading. A group test mental age of nine years made by a ten year old child may mean that the child is bright but has reading difficulty or that he is quite dull but has a high reading accomplishment. Research in reading would be aided greatly by instruments for measuring intelligence independent of reading.

2. Sex differences. Since girls apparently progress more rapidly than boys in reading, it is evident that this factor should be taken into account when equating groups for reading experiments.

3. Differences in sensory conditions. It is obvious that visual or auditory handicaps must be taken into account where reading is concerned. While this factor might be equated by the use of large experimental and control groups, it should

be controlled by actual measures. The Betts (6) apparatus will be helpful in studying visual conditions. Auditory defects may be checked by the 4-A audiometer, but for careful work in phonics and oral reading experiments, the 2-A audiometer should be used. The studies of Tinker (95) indicate that the illumination in the classrooms should be controlled.

4. Differences of skills of perception. Particularly in experiments in beginning reading, the backgrounds of children in various types of visual and auditory perception should be known. The work of Monroe (73) indicates that children vary in these skills which are probably closely

related to progress in reading.

5. Differences in reading achievements and habits. While it is the usual practice to pair children who have similar reading ages on achievement tests, it is important to notice whether the score was obtained by a slow rate but high accuracy or by a high rate but low accuracy. Children having equal scores on a composite of reading tests may have grossly unequal scores on certain elements which are more important for the experiment than the composite scores.

6. Other factors. Ladd (63) finds reading to be influenced favorably by the child's school attitudes, self-control, persistence, concentration, self-confidence, and social adjustment as rated by the teacher. She finds also that there is a slight relationship between poor reading and foreign language in the home. In equating groups, one would do well to

refer to Ladd's study.

Problems in controlling variables during the experiment

In a large number of the experiments in reading which are reported in the educational journals, so many elements in methods, materials, and motivation are involved in the attempt to improve on an undefined reading ability that one cannot isolate the specific factors that brought about the improved test scores. It is quite possible that some of the many factors served to retard progress while others aided the improvement only slightly. Attention should be given to the following factors in controlling variables during the experiment:

1. Evaluating a single element. It is particularly difficult in reading to determine when a single experimental element has been isolated. An examination of the research problems mentioned in the earlier sections of this paper may assist in calling attention to some of the many elements involved in each field of experimentation.

2. Controlling the amount of practice in and out of school. Ladd (63) finds that the amount of time spent in reading for pleasure correlates positively with reading achievement. The amount of out-of-school reading might well be checked. Absence from school is also important. Certain skills in phonics and word recognition may be practiced in play or in meditation. This latter factor would be difficult to control. If the voluntary activity is a result of the method, there is no need to equate for it in the final evaluation of the experiment.

3. Controlling the factor of novelty. If two methods are being compared, the novel one is likely to have the greater appeal to children. In the evaluation of reading systems, this factor is probably important. It is better to compare a new system with a new system rather than with one that has been previously used for years in the schools where the experi-

ment is being carried on.

4. Controlling other factors. The personality, habits, and classroom skill of the teacher are always involved in educational experiments. This is ordinarily controlled by having both the experimental and control groups taught by the same teacher

or by rotating the groups. The factor of motivation is subtle and difficult to control. An unfortunate initial presentation or a casual comment may change the attitude of the class toward any method or material. A daily record of observations by the teacher as well as careful supervision by the person conducting the research might help to control the variables which would affect the experiment.

Problems in evaluating outcomes

Failure to evaluate all of the outcomes is probably the greatest weakness of most experiments in reading. It is usual to measure the skill being taught without attempting to evaluate its effect on related skills. The careful evaluation of results on a small number of individuals yields more significant data than a poor evaluation of results on a large population. The study of Gates, Bachelder, and Betzner (44) might well serve as a model for the evaluation of the many outcomes of different methods of teaching beginning reading. Suggestions for evaluation of outcomes follow.

1. Measurement of the experimental element. The usual standardized reading test measures a combination of elements. A low score on a reading test may mean slow reading, re-reading, vocabulary difficulties, word recognition difficulties, difficulties with sentence structure, confusion due to the novelty of the task or to the directions, or any number of other conditions. Research will be aided by the development of measures for the differential analysis of the various factors involved in reading. It will often be necessary to build tests which isolate the single factor being studied.

2. Measurement of related elements. Many suggestions for the measurement of relationships between various reading skills have been suggested throughout the earlier sections of this paper. It is possible that the gains in any skill may be offset by losses in other skills. Improve-

ment in word analysis skills may come at the expense of slower reading and poorer eye movements. Increase in the speed of reading may be offset by loss in comprehension. Drills to improve comprehension of difficult passages may result in loss of flexibility or association skills. The outcomes in the increase or decrease of voluntary reading should not be overlooked in any experiment.

3. Measurement of small units of progress. Tests of the inventory type are needed in experimental work in reading. Most of the standardized tests are insensitive to small units of progress, since they are built to cover a range of grades and courses of study. Inventory type tests should make it possible to determine the merits of a method in a very short time. Much of the difficulty in determining the significance of differences is probably due to the insensitivity of the tests used.

4. Evaluation of delayed outcomes.

Some of the effects of a method, favorable or unfavorable, may not appear immediately. It is well to follow the progress of children in later grades to see the permanence of gains and to observe differences which may appear as a result of the earlier instruction.

5. The evaluation of the results for different elements of the population. This is one of the most important steps in the evaluation of results. A procedure may be effective with bright children but not with dull. It may be unsuccessful at early levels of reading but very successful with more mature readers. It would be well to make special studies of children whose scores run counter to the general trend. While the study of mean tendencies may yield important results, the analysis of special group and individual variations may lead to equally significant conclusions.

(Evaluations of this report will appear in the fall numbers)

"THE TWINS"—THEIR ORIGIN

(Continued from page 169)

ing of sympathy and the awakening of emotion to desired ends, I will cité an instance which touched me as evidencing that these books had, in some measure, fulfilled my hope for them. Some little time ago the papers were filled with prophecies of war with Japan, and two little children, hearing of it, burst into tears fearing, as they said, "if there were a war with Japan, something might happen to the Japanese twins!"

It has been my earnest wish to keep closely in touch with the ideas of children and to this end, I had for years what I called my "Poison Squad," upon whom I tried my stories before sending them to the publisher. I read the manuscript to this group and profited much by their comments and criticisms.

I was astonished by their perception of literary form, and got great pleasure out of the awakening of their own imaginations as directed to the problems involved in the story.

I might cite other important trifles which have contributed to the carrying out of this purpose, and recall the unexpected opportunities, contacts, and incidents which have come to hand, apparently of themselves, in the creation of each individual book. Each subject undertaken seemed to bring its own stimulation with it, the story even taking a quite unexpected turn now and then, apparently of its own accord.

It is for such reasons as these, that each book became an interesting adventure into the inner kingdom of the mind.

JANE ANDREWS

(Continued from page 166)

ful note. Her small pupils cried if they had to remain away. Her sister Caroline regretted that she had been born too soon since she was prevented by her age from attending her sister's school.

The materials for study in Miss Andrews' school were a far cry from the traditional things of the period. The harbor nearby with its freight from all over the world gave them most of the material which they used. Miss Andrews told them stories and taught them to use the globe and maps as they saw rice, cotton, saltpetre and coffee unloaded. The practical skills were not neglected and the story is told that one small boy protested in his home that his father received a right angle of pie while he had only an acute angle!

Other volumes for children followed Seven Little Sisters:

Each and All 1877

Geographical Plays for Young Folks at Home and School 1880

Ten Boys Who Lived on the Road from Long Ago to Now 1885 The Child's Health Primer 1885 Later her contributions to St. Nicholas and other magazines were collected and

published under the following titles: Only a Year and What it Brought 1888 The Stories Mother Nature Told her Children 1889

The Stories of My Son's Friends 1900 Miss Andrews gave herself tirelessly to unfortunate people. She made a practice of inviting lonely men and women to her house for Thanksgiving. The children of her school were taught service for others. Christmas to them meant not a time to receive but to give.

Jane Andrews died in 1887. Her death was caused by overwork for she tried to finish *The Child's Health Primer* which she had promised to write for the Women's Christian Temperance Union while she was engaged in other arduous work. Her widely scattered pupils paid grateful tribute to her at her death. Her work lives on for *Seven Little Sisters* still carries its message of love and universal goodwill.

A BRIDGE OF INTERNATIONAL FRIENDSHIP

(Continued from page 173)

Jean, Sally Lucas, and Hallock, Grace. Spending the Day in China, Japan, and the Philippines. Harper, 1932, \$2.00.

Story-pictures of the regular daily life of boys and girls in three countries of the Far East.

La Varre, Andre and William. Johnny Round the World. Simon & Schuster, 1933, \$2.00.

Photographs of the forty foreign children which an American boy met as he was traveling around the world. Washburne, Helviz. Letters to Channy. Rand Mc-Nally, 1932, \$2.00.

Delightful letters between a mother who is traveling abroad and her son who is spending his vacation on an Illinois farm.³

Wilson, Eleanore Hubbard. Flyaway Flippety. Harper, 1932, \$2.00.

A baby stork with a bump of curiosity that was not satisfied until he made a trip from Holland to Egypt.³

Editorial

In the Name of World Peace

OMMON interests, like-mindedness, and human sympathies are all factors making for the perpetuation of international good will and peace. At the core of the whole problem is the question of making young people more keenly aware of their common interests. This is most easily and effectively accomplished through literature. Make children good neighbors to a richly stocked library, for in books they will find what only the millennium can yield—all the Utopias, and the universal brotherhood of man.

Lafcadio Hearn in his Talks to Writers did an excellent thing when he pointed out the international range of the literature most widely known to English and American children. Only nursery songs are indigenous to English soil in life. Fairy tales, he said, excepting only the truly English "Jack and the Beanstalk," are the lore of other peoples. "Cinderella," "The Sleeping Beauty," and many others are French. Then there are those from the German of the Brothers Grimm, and the translations from the Danish of Hans Christian Andersen. Beyond the fairy-tale age, Hearn pointed to the age of adventure and romance, and showed that with few exceptions, the list consists of translations. And finally, there are the translations from classical Greek and Latin, concludes Hearn, and from religious Hebrew literature. He made his point emphatically that English speaking children were nurtured imaginatively, and mentally stimulated more largely through foreign translations than through literature that is purely English or American in spirit and origin.

If all this were true at the time when Lafcadio Hearn was writing (1896-1917) it is more widely true today. Not only has the number of translations been greatly increased, but such a list as that prepared by Miss Shaw (page 170) is evidence of a growing abundance of books about foreign countries and their peoples. Jane Andrews (see page 165 of this issue) has been succeeded by Lucy Fitch Perkins (page 169), and Frances Jenkins Olcott in sympathetic accounts of other nationalities. Kate Seredy (see her account of her homeland on page 167), Monica Shannon, Elizabeth Coatsworth, Erick Kelly—to name a few—have written books of great literary beauty concerning life in other parts of the world.

No greater work could be done in the name of peace among the nations of the world than to make children everywhere more conscious of these books, more keenly aware of their heritage from the vast human family the world over in the classics from the past and in the offerings of literature today. And this can best be done by spreading libraries wherever there are children, and stocking them richly with such books. Let children everywhere become aware more deeply, more confidently and consciously of their common interests and their likemindedness through books. Let them read to the surge of stirring sympathies and emotions. Let their minds be aroused by the profoundly significant morals of ancient fables, and fired by ideals of virtue expressed in world literature.

Reviews and Abstracts

C. C. CERTAIN

Youth's Captain, The Story of Ralph Waldo Emerson. By Hildegarde Hawthorne. Illus. by W. M. Berger. Longmans, Green, 1935. \$2.00.

Although the author succeeded in drawing one of the most amiable and pleasing pictures of Nathaniel Hawthorne in The Romantic Rebel, that book is no more alluring and vivid than Youth's Captain, which shows us the sedate and Philosophical Ralph Waldo Emerson as his own family and most intimate friends knew him. This biography is as stirring as a book of fiction.

The author, Hildegarde Hawthorne, has splendidly supplemented with her keen scholarship, the lore of the Concord group which must surely have been hers from earliest childhood, since she is a granddaughter of Nathaniel Hawthorne. One is impressed not merely with the extent of her knowledge of the Emersons, but with her deft selection and artistic handling of details. A more suitable biography for young people could not be imagined, for there is no burden here of tiresome dates and the endless incident of historical composition. Little analysis is required, either, to show that the reason for this lies not so much in a clever climaxing of events in the life story of Emerson, as in the mental and spiritual forces characteristic of the great philosopher. For example, the author makes a great deal, not just of his meeting interesting persons, but of his search for the truest type of friend. Again, it is not the event, however interesting this may be, as for example, crossing from Malta to Sicily on a boat manned by a comic opera crew, but Emerson's mental domination of life. The intellectual and spiritual independence of Emerson is emphasized again and again. A characteristic handling of incident is the account of Emerson's reply to critics of his address to the graduating class of the Harvard Divinity School in 1838. Emerson, having declined to be drawn into controversy or forced into a defensive position, says, "I do not know what an argument means in reference to an expression of a thought. I delight in telling what I think; but if you ask me, how I dare say so, or why it is, I am the most helpless of men."

The author uses much homely detail—covering the fires at night, looking after chores. Emerson's life was full of physical responsibilities from childhood on. To have read the book is like having known and grown up with Ralph Waldo Emerson, and the boy or girl who closes this volume understands, without being told, that he has read the life of the author of America's declaration of literary independence.

Behind the Show Window. By Jeanette Eaton. Illus. Harcourt, Brace, 1935.

One cannot read Behind the Show Window without becoming not only better informed, but more thoughtful, more sensitive to the meaning of things around him, in fine, more highly civilized. Informational books, guide books, industrial handbooks, and the like rarely are to be classed as literature, but I am sure that I see in this sizable volume not information alone, but information fringed with atmosphere, and romance, with the cultured richness of the traditional past. The author writes with the authority of one who knows not only the facts, but as well the sources of information. There is great amplitude in the treatment of every subject. Both the seeing and the sauntering eye have prepared the way here. No lack of generosity is felt, but neither is there any glazing over of weaknesses or of evils. Witness the straight-forward and revealing exposition on the fur trade.

There is power here which every teacher should analyze. Comprehension and discrimination, of course, there are, but above all, there is the intelligent way of seeing things that guides the observations of others. The novice must be taught not only what to see, but ways of seeing things. In this book, it is not "textiles" but "the romance of textiles"; not "fabrics," but "facing fabric mysteries" that give the reader zest and enthusiasm to pursue the subject further or to be forever impressed with its meaningfulness.

The book is shot through with thought. Weaknesses in buying and selling, imperfect standards, carelessness or lack of development in the handling methods are all pointed out. In particular, the consumer's point of view is taken. All of the intricacies of speculative buying and selling are laid before the reader in clarifying examples. The author of the book is eye-witness, and bears testimony.

Repeatedly the problem aspects of our merchandizing system are pointed out. "It is a good guess that the system might be far more economical, but how to improve it is a puzzling matter." There is constructive thinking too. "Of course, consumers might very well join together in co-operative societies to do their buying." Examples of this are cited, and authoritative sources of information are given out. In this highly constructive and thoughtful

manner, the grand tour of inspection proceeds. Truly the title of the book implies economic principles indirectly got at in buying and selling as well as the physical set-up in our markets.

Miss Eaton brought to her task the patience of an historian, and the skill of a gifted writer. She has, to an extraordinary degree, inter-related her subject-matter, what is today with what was yesterday; all the facets of interest an object possesses are turned this way and that for the reader to see. Not only are past and present interwoven, along with statement of fact and interpretative comment, but illuminating sidelights are given. Not merely is this matter or that accurately presented factually, but cause and effect are traced in higher standards of living or in some liberalizing force released to give new impulse to social advancement. Truly the book is a remarkable achievement.

It is a pity that the publishers did not rise to the occasion when this splendid manuscript came to their editorial desks. The book is an ugly shape—too wide in proportion to its length, and it is not well bound. Look within the covers for illustrations and a rich variety is found, but they should have been better produced lithographically. The reviewer feels disappointed in the work of the publishers. He wants to quarrel with them for presenting so unsatisfactorily what is essentially so beautiful.

Valiant, Dog of the Timberline. By Jack O'Brien. Illus. By Kurt Wiese. John C. Winston Company, 1935. \$2.00.

This book is more than a story. It is an epic of the American sheep-ranch with a dog at the center of action. Trent, an Australian sheep-man, moves to Wyoming, and then to Montana with his son, David, and two sheep-dogs, Sultana and her puppy, Valiant. Valiant was the only puppy of the litter who inherited the rare qualities of a good sheep-dog. The puppy was rigorously trained to this difficult work by his master, Trent, and his mother, Sultana. On the trek from Wyoming to Montana, Sultana was killed by a "silver-tip" (a grizzly), saving Trent's life.

Trent had left Wyoming because of the feud between cattle- and sheep-men, hoping that by going to Montana he might establish a ranch and a home for his son. He succeeded in establishing a valid claim to the land that he desired in the Crazy Mountains, only to find that the cattle-baron of that section had used this land for winter pasture, and would not tolerate sheep. Under the leadership of the baron's ruthless son, hostilities were begun to drive Trent from the country. In the succeeding events, Valiant becomes not only the companion of David and the heroic defender of property and flocks, but a deciding factor in the feud.

Jack O'Brien, the author, knows how to handle plot; he never lets events go beyond plausibility, and his people and his dogs act in character. There is no doubt of his familiarity with the country. One feels that he has been a sheep-man himself; he knows sheep-men, the way their minds work, the effect of the work on them; he knows sheep; and above all, he knows dogs. Character and event, well handled and tied together, make a good story. In this book the two move together, neither is subordinated to the other. From the plot angle, there is not only adventure but vigorous action and climax.

Any boy from twelve years old on will enjoy the story. The illustrations are true to the spirit of the narrative and give atmosphere to the book. As usual, the Winston Company has maintained high typographical standards.

Among the Publishers

PICTURE AND EASY BOOKS

- Aladdin and the Wonderful Lamp. Illus. by E. Mac-Kinstry. Macmillan, 1935. \$1.75.
- Beachcomber Bobbie. By Florence Bourgeois. Illus. by the author. Doubleday, Doran, 1935. 50c.
- Children of the Northlights. By Ingri and Edgar Parin d'Aulaire. Illus. by the authors. Viking, 1935. \$2.00.
- The Easter Rabbit's Parade. By Lois Lenski. Illus. by the author. Oxford University Press, 1936. \$1.00.
- The House that Jack Built, Illus. by M. L. and W. C. Wheeler. And a Frog He Would a-Wooing Go. Illus. by Warner Carr. Rand McNally, 1936. 10c.
- How Percival Caught the Tiger. By Percival Stutter. Holiday House, 1936. \$1.00.
- Little Ones. By Dorothy Kunhardt. Illus. by Kurt Wiese. Viking, 1935. \$2.00.
- The Nonsense A B C. By Edward Lear. Illus. by Marguerite and Willard C. Wheeler. Rand Mc-Nally, 1936. 10c.
- Pig-o-wee. The story of a skinny mountain pig. By Ellis Credle. Illus. by the author. Rand Mc-Nally, 1936. \$1.00.
- Stop, Look, Listen. By Berta and Elmer Hader. Illus, by the authors. Longmans, Green, 1936. \$1.00.
- Ted and Nina Have a Happy Rainy Day. By Marguerite de Angeli. Illus. by the author. Doubleday, Doran, 1936. 50c.
- Ted and Nina Go to the Grocery Store. By Marguerite de Angeli. Illus. by the author. Doubleday, Doran, 1935. 50c.
- Turkey Tale. By Frances Atchinson Bacon. Illus. by Grace Paull. Oxford University Press, 1935, 75c.
- Up in the Air. By Marjorie Flack. Illus. by Karl Larsson. Macmillan, 1935. \$1.75.

NARRATIVES

- Ann Frances. By Eliza Orne White. Illus. by Helen Sewell. Houghton Mifflin, 1935. \$1.75.
- Camel Bells. A Boy of Baghdad. By Anna Ratzesberger. Illus. by Kurt Wiese. Whitman, 1935. \$2.00.
- Circus Boy. By Harriet F. Bunn. Illus. by George M. Richards. Macmillan, 1936. \$1.75.
- Five at Ashefield. By Christine Noble Govan. Houghton Mifflin, 1935. \$2.00.
- Frank E. Schonover, and others. Grossett and Dunlap, 1928. \$1.00.
- Harpoon. The story of a whaling voyage. By Foster

- Rhea Dulles. Illus. by Clifford W. Ashley. Houghton Mifflin, 1935. \$2.00.
- Head Wind. By Hawthorne Daniel. Illus. by Charles E. Pont. Macmillan, 1936. \$2.00.
- In the Beginning. By Sholem Asch. Trans. from the German by Caroline Cunningham. Illus. by Eleanor Klemm. Putnams, 1935. \$2.00.
- Lona of Hollybush Creek. By Genevieve Fox. Illus. by Forrest W. Orr. Little, Brown, 1935. \$2.00.
- Mary Poppins Comes Back. By P. L. Travers. Illus. by Mary Shepard. Reynal and Hitchcock, 1935. \$1.50.
- Mr. Tidy Paws. By Frances Clarke Sayers. Illus. by Zhenya Gay. Viking, 1935, \$1.50.
- Mocassins on the Trail. By Wolfe Thompson. Illus. by Richard H. Rodgers. Longmans, Green, 1935.
- Once at Woodball. By Frances Lowry Higgins. Illus, by Allan Lewis. Harper, 1935. \$1.75.
- Penelope Ellen and Her Friends. Three little girls of 1840. By Ethel Parton. Illus. by Margaret Platt. Viking, 1936. \$2.00.
- Ride-the-Wind. By Ethel Calvert Phillips. Illus. by Herbert Morton Stoops. Houghton Mifflin, 1935.
- Sporting Chance. By Donal Hamilton Haines. Farrar and Rinehart, 1935. \$1.75.
- Whistler's Van. By Idewal Jones. Illus. by Zhenya Gay. Viking, 1936. \$2.00.
- Wind in the Rigging. By Pease Howard. Doubleday, Doran, 1935. \$2.00.

INFORMATIONAL MATERIAL

- The Children Make a Garden. By Dorothy H. Jenkins. Illus. by Rhea Wells. Doubleday, Doran, 1936. \$1.50.
- The Gardener's First Year. By Alfred Bates. Illus. by the author. Longmans, Green, 1936. \$2.00.
- Green Grows the Garden. By Margery Bianco. Illus. by Grace Paull. Macmillan, 1936. \$1.50.
- Mountain Neighbors. By Edith M. Patch and Carroll Lane Fenton. Illus. by Carroll Lane Fenton. Macmillan, 1936. \$1.50.
- Cowbells and Clover. By Daniel Cory. Grosset and Dunlap, 1935.
- Who Goes There? By Dorothy P. Lathrop. Illus. by the author. Macmillan, 1935. \$1.50.
- Old Spain in Our Southwest. By Nina Otero. Illus. by Aileen Nusbaum. Harcourt, Brace, 1936. \$2.00.
- Children of the Handicrafts. By Caroline Sherwin Bailey. Illus. by Grace Paull. Viking, 1935. \$2.00.

- Moviemakers. By John J. Floherty. Illus. with photographs. Doubleday, Doran, 1935. \$2.00.
- Modern Locomotives. By John Y. Beatty. Illus. with photographs. Rand McNally, 1935. 15c.
- The Story Book of Wheels, Ships, Trains, Aircraft. By Maud and Miska Petersham. Illus. by the authors. John C. Winston, 1935. \$2.50.
- Talking Wires. By Clara Lambert. Illus. with photographs. Macmillan, 1935. \$2.00.

FOR CLASS USE

- The Arabian Nights. Edited to fit the interests and abilities of young readers by Edward L. Thorndike. Illus. by Boris Artzybasheff. Appleton-Century, 1936. 88¢.
- A Christmas Carol. By Charles Dickens. Edited to fit the interests and abilities of young readers by Edward L. Thorndike. Illus. by Dorothy Bayley. Appleton-Century, 1936. 88¢.

 In the same volume: The Little Duke. By Charlotte M. Yonge. Edited, etc. by E. L. Thorndike.
- English for Today. Essential English exercises for the enrichment and correcting of speech and writing. By Ettie Lee. Macmillan, 1935.

- Finding the New World. From Leif the Lucky to the Pilgrims of Plymouth. By Walter Taylor Field. Ginn, 1933. \$1.00.
- The Measurement of Teaching Efficiency. By William H. Lancelot and others. Ed. by Helen M. Walker. Macmillan, 1935. \$2.25.

 Kappa Delta Pi Research Publications.
- Peter's Family. By Paul R. Hanna, Genevieve Anderson, and William S. Gray. Illus. by Clarence Biers and others. Scott, Foresman, 1935. 56¢. Curriculum Foundation Series.
- Reading for Skill. Practice exercises in remedial reading and library skill. By Angela M. Broening, Frederick H. Law, Mary S. Wilkinson, and Caroline L. Ziegler. Noble and Noble, 1936. \$1.20.
- A Story About Big Trees. By Helen S. Read. Illus. by Eleanor Lee. Ed. by Patty Smith Hill and Mary M. Reed. Scribner's, 1935. 60¢ Social Science Readers.
- A Story About Tall Buildings. By Helen S. Read. Illus. by Eleanor Lee. Ed. by Patty Smith Hill and Mary M. Reed. Scribner's, 1935. 60¢. Social Science Readers.

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